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ABSTRACT

This review examines issues which need to be addressed in order to increase the effectiveness of institutional management of innovation and change in higher education, and is written primarily from a practical perspective rather than from a theoretical or research viewpoint. The paper is divided into two parts: Part I briefly reviews a number of key issues in the management of higher educational institutions in the 1990s; and Part II builds on this to consider the management of innovation and change in more detail. Part I discussions examine changes in institutional decision-making, financial management and funding, leadership, higher education diversification, performance assessment, and people management. Part II discussions include whether or not institutions of higher education are resistant to change, the main sources of innovation in higher education, institutional readiness for change, implementing change in higher education, and the strategies for innovation and change. Contains 55 references. (GLR)

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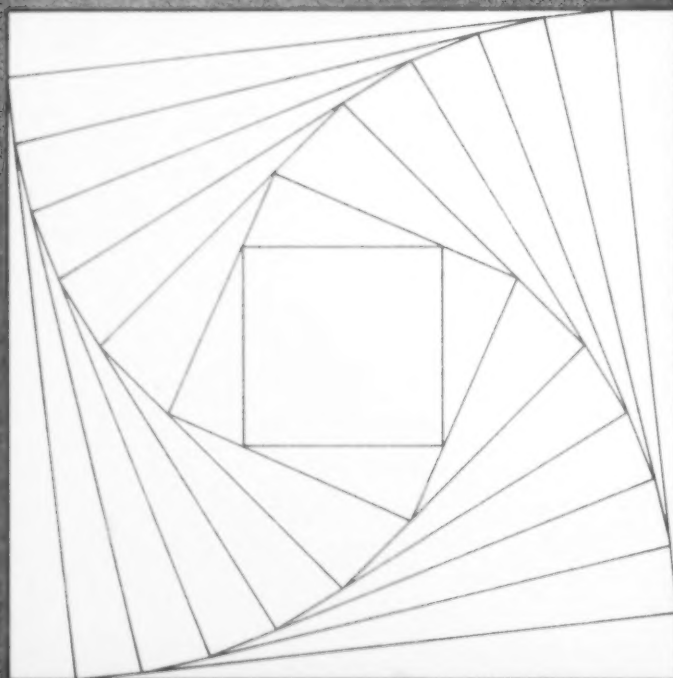
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Improving the effectiveness of the management of innovation and change in higher education

Allan Schofield



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Issues and methodologies in educational development:
an IIEP series for orientation and training

Improving the effectiveness of the management of innovation and change in higher education

Alan Schofield

International Institute for Educational Planning
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Introduction

This review of issues which need to be addressed in order to increase the effectiveness of institutional management of innovation and change in higher education has been written as part of the initial phase of an IIEP research project: "Improving the effectiveness of higher education institutions: studies of the management of change". Towards this end, the style adopted in this paper is relatively discursive, and it has been written primarily from a practical perspective rather than from a theoretical or research one. The author has not hesitated to offer personal views on the management of change and on areas which might form valuable topics for research.

The literature on institutional management of innovation and change is vast, and therefore any summary of the kind produced in this paper can be no more than an outline of key points. Deciding what to select in such a situation is thus difficult, and it is acknowledged that much additional material of interest could have been included.

The paper is divided into two main parts: Part I briefly reviews a number of key issues in the management of higher education institutions in the 1990s, whilst Part II builds on this to consider the management of innovation and change in more detail.

Part I

Management effectiveness in higher education

Six issues in particular are picked out below as having crucial importance for effective management in the 1990s and setting the context for innovation and change. They are:

- (1) Changes in institutional decision-making.
- (2) Financial management and funding.
- (3) The diversification of higher education and its consequences for management effectiveness.
- (4) Leadership.
- (5) Assessment of performance.
- (6) Managing people.

1. Changes in institutional decision-making

It is difficult to be precise about trends in institutional decision-making due to the wide range of differences between higher education systems. Thus, whilst there has been a lot of pressure on institutions using what can generally be characterized as the British and North American approach to higher education to adapt their decision-making systems to make them more effective and efficient, such pressure has by no means been applied to all other higher education systems (OECD 1987). The following comments therefore need to be applied selectively.

Traditional collegial methods of decision-making through bodies consisting largely of academic members have been subject to considerable criticism for a number of reasons which include slowness, a lack of decisiveness, and a focus that is inward and on the institution rather than being externally oriented (Lockwood and Davies 1985). Institutions have responded to such criticisms in different ways, but in some countries attempts have been made to streamline decision-making, for example by reducing the number of decision-making committees and their powers, replacing academic control with management action on some non-academic matters, placing greater emphasis on the accountability of decision makers, and so on. (For an institutional example of decision-making in a time of contraction see Walford 1987).

Associated with such measures, in some systems there has been considerable questioning of the value of widescale participation in decision-making by students (where they are represented in senior decision-making forums) and also by some academic staff. Thus Sibley (1986) in a keynote address to the *Conference of deans of management and administrative studies in Canadian universities* notes that:

"These vestiges of the revolution of the 1960s are becoming somewhat passé, and will fade away as the protagonists of that revolution escape from the timewarp in which they have been imprisoned and shed their romantic fantasies about the role and value of participatory democracy in running the university. Moreover, the true believers will in any case eventually be displaced by a rising generation of young scholars who give every evidence of showing less interest in and affection for these badly outdated mythologies".

Sibley, in common with others, goes on to suggest that crucial institutional decisions concerning resourcing and the viability of academic programmes should no longer be made by academic senates or their equivalent, but should rather be taken by executive teams. Such views are still controversial but they are becoming increasingly influential, and trends in this direction are discernible in a number of higher education systems, particularly Australia and the United Kingdom.

The role played by administrative support staff in relation to decision-making in higher education institutions has also changed considerably during the past decade, and increasingly such staff are preparing to adopt a more proactive and managerial role. In many countries the increasing administrative burdens on institutions, and the more complex legal and technological frameworks in which they now have to work, mean that these matters have to be dealt with by qualified administrative staff in a way which threatens to change the traditional collegial ethos still prized by some institutions. As administration grows more proactive in the perception of its role this will clearly influence the success or failure of planned innovations.

Associated with such adaptations in the decision-making structure of institutions, the role of the university president, rector or vice chancellor is also changing in some systems. For example, in the United Kingdom an influential report produced by the *Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals* (1985) -- 'The Jarratt Report' -- suggested that a vice chancellor should become a chief executive officer, and as such more clearly accountable for university affairs. Although by no means welcomed by all universities, such proposals are currently being implemented. Similar changes may occur at the level of the academic department, with heads increasingly selected for their management abilities as well as for the more traditional academic virtues. The concept of heads of academic departments as academic managers is inevitably leading to much greater attention on their changing and perhaps conflicting roles. These issues are developed further in the discussion on leadership below, (see pages 6 - 8).

So far as the management of change in higher education is concerned, the inter-relationship with decision-making is clearly crucial, and most of the available evidence

suggests that all too often innovation is neither supported nor encouraged by the formal decision-making system (Enderud 1980). Numerous models have been developed to explain this state of affairs: to cite just two, Baldrige *et al* (1971) adopt an approach taken from political theory to explain institutional decision-making and thus see innovation as an outcome of competing groups and individuals rather than representing a co-ordinated and planned approach; while Cohen and March (1974) see higher education as an 'organized anarchy' where the decision processes are often unrelated either to the real problem that needs to be addressed or to the implementation of any solution. The link between formal and informal decision-making and innovation and change thus remains an important area for study, as suggested in the IIEP review.

2. Financial management and funding

As is now widely known, for a variety of reasons higher education in many countries has been under pressure to increase institutional efficiency and effectiveness, and reactions to this have taken a number of forms. Much has been written about efficiency (particularly on topics such as student cost, staff/student ratios, utilization rates and so on); but rather less has been written about institutional effectiveness. This is hardly surprising since many higher education institutions still have weak (or non-existent) objectives or mission statements on which to make coherent judgements of effectiveness. Such pressures have not only affected higher education in the developed world, and in a recent report on Sub-Saharan Africa the World Bank (1988) has drawn attention to the need for much greater institutional efficiency in terms of resource use.

A particular development associated with the search for greater institutional efficiency and effectiveness has been a quest for far greater financial control and associated 'value for money' approaches to funding in some systems. As the IIEP (1990) review points out, this has taken place alongside a trend towards increased centralization in resource allocation in some European countries, whilst in others there has been significant decentralization, sometimes making heads of departments or cost centres accountable budget holders. Indeed, in a few institutions experiments are taking place in making individual academic staff budget holders within an almost wholly decentralized approach. Thus increasing pressures for greater resource discipline have to be seen not only in terms of changing financial control procedures and improving asset management, but also in terms of clarifying the nature and form of individual and institutional accountability (see below). The extent to which even basic financial information is known varies widely within different systems: in some full data are collected (but not necessarily made available in a usable form), while in others any data are difficult to attribute to particular budget heads (this is often the case in institutions effectively run by a ministry of education or a form of local government). Without such information effective financial management is impossible, and in such circumstances attempts to provide any kind of realistic cost analysis of performance will be extremely difficult.

The importance of developing management information systems has reasserted itself within many higher education systems as pressures for more efficient resource utilization have increased. In the 1970s large, formal planning systems were popular (for example PPBS) particularly in North American universities; now, the pressure for improved data

collection and management information tends to place emphasis primarily on resource allocation and control purposes. One major consequence of such developments has been the search for elaborate performance indicators to make possible many kinds of comparisons for both intra and inter-institutional performance (see Cuenin 1987).

The very size, complexity, and growth of higher education institutions inevitably entail financial pressures, and in almost all systems it is now clear that universities must be selective in funding both research and teaching. Such a conclusion immediately raises the questions of how such judgements should be made, what the criteria should be, and the ability of traditional forms of consensual decision-making (appropriate perhaps during times of growth) to make such decisions. Moreover, such questions cannot be addressed outside the context of agreed institutional plans and objectives. Thus the very expansion of many higher education systems in the 1960s and 1970s has led inexorably to a need for new forms of financial management and control in the 1980s and 1990s. Such increasing selectivity has major implications for the management of innovation: competition for funds is likely to be greater, and the pressures on institutions to ensure successful implementation are also much stronger.

It is most unlikely that such financial pressures will recede -- indeed, the opposite is much more likely, and a set of new problems is coming to the forefront to face institutions in the 1990s. In Australia, a policy of widescale institutional mergers has forced further analysis of the cost competitiveness of different forms of higher education organization. In New Zealand, the United Kingdom and many other countries changes in student financing are being discussed, and the introduction of some form of student loan system will present institutions in various systems with additional financial problems. In other countries the possible reduction in the length of degree or equivalent courses will lead to rigorous reappraisal of financial costs and benefits. In such circumstances it is almost inevitable that the management of innovation will become closely associated with the management and control of financial resources, and institutions will need sufficient management ability to plan and implement such developments creatively and effectively.

3. The diversification of higher education

In many countries there has been increasing diversification of higher education (particularly within the last decade), much of it involving closer relationships with the private economic sector, and this has led to a range of organizational problems requiring different kinds of managerial skills and solutions. The innovations which have led to such diversification include: providing courses for different types of students (including more mature students and more women); undertaking extensive research and consultancy projects for industry and other external sponsors; the development and generation of science parks; the establishment of self-financing university companies; and so on. Such innovations not only need more effective management to make possible the initiation and integration of such activities into the life of the institution, but also require management of a kind that will enable such activities to continue to develop and expand. The growth of such diversification in higher education is a rich area for study, and in particular for an assessment of factors common to the successful introduction of privately funded initiatives within different cultural settings.

Such diversification of itself creates different kinds of pressures within higher education institutions. For example, self-financing units, consultancy centres and science parks find it difficult -- if not impossible -- to use the same approach to decision-making as is used for conventional academic matters. They need systems which are faster, more decisive, task centred, and which provide for staff incentives, clear accountability, and perhaps short-term contracts. Thus as the higher education institution becomes more diverse and heterogeneous, not only are different and more sophisticated management skills required, but by comparison the traditional approach to decision-making appears increasingly inappropriate to an even greater portion of university life.

Technological pressures have also tended to lead to diversification within higher education, and they have therefore had an effect on the nature and quality of management. The development of open learning, the major innovations in computer-based learning, and so on, have all required the introduction of different approaches to institutional management (Champness and Young 1980). It is not only that these innovations themselves need to be managed in different ways, but also that offering new forms of learning demands detailed comparisons (both financial and academic) with traditional methods and activities, together with the ability and institutional will to act on the consequences.

4. Leadership

The quality of leadership in many higher education institutions has been subject to growing criticism. As the pressures on institutions increase, many senior staff have found that the collegial approach to holding a senior office usually adopted in earlier decades is no longer appropriate. It is effective leadership that is the crucial dimension in ensuring that decision-making systems support innovation rather than contain it, and that financial management facilitates innovation rather than denying it, and the general absence of such leadership has been described by Keller (1983) as 'the great leadership crisis in higher education'. However, although the absence of leadership is increasingly perceived to be a problem, there is no agreement on what constitutes effective leadership within education nor on how leadership skills are best developed.

There is, of course, a growing literature on leadership in education, but this reflects many different approaches to its study. There is, however, general agreement on the main functions of leaders at senior level. These include strategic thinking, giving direction, establishing organizational climates, problem solving, team building, motivation, developing staff, decision-making, communication, encouraging innovation, creative thinking, and so on. One of the criticisms made by Keller and others is that in the past such issues have often not been handled well, have been dealt with on a reactive rather than a proactive basis, and have emphasized administration rather than positive leadership. In a research study on the impact of financial reductions on British universities, Sizer (1987) reviewed the way in which a number of institutions had coped with severe financial contraction, and his findings have emphasized the need for effective leadership and quick proactive decision-making.

There is a considerable literature on the question of leadership style, and which kind is appropriate in any particular circumstances, particularly to support innovation. Models that might be usefully reviewed in relation to the proposed IIEP case studies include the

managerial grid adapted for higher education as 'the academic administrator grid' (Blake, Mouton and Williams 1981); 'situational leadership' (Hersey and Blanchard 1977), a particularly useful approach since it takes account of 'follower' behaviour in relation to the concept of maturity, itself both an interesting and a problematic concept in higher education; and 'the 3-D theory of managerial effectiveness' (Reddin 1970). Studies on leadership include the work of Astin and Scherrei (1980), who have undertaken a study of the styles of university presidents in the United States of America, and have correlated them with the satisfaction expressed by faculty and administrative staff in the same institutions (although the results may not be replicable outside the USA).

Along with greater interest in the question of leadership in academic institutions has come increased attention to the question of accountability. Accusations of a lack of accountability, while increasingly common and demanding serious attention, may be stated in a manner which is exceptionally crude and suitable only for the most hierarchical of organizations (Audit Commission 1987). Most higher education institutions are, of course, already accountable in some way: usually through formal legal frameworks, and often additionally through whatever form of public accountability exists within a particular system. For any serious analysis of accountability (including the relationship of the concept to the management of change), its various forms have to be distinguished. Clearly, legal and financial accountability are major issues, but accountability to contractors, to professional bodies and associations, to ethical standards, to accrediting bodies, and to the users of the service provided are others. In the light of these various (and sometimes conflicting) forms, the introduction of a crude type of management accountability largely based on traditional and increasingly outdated views of the need for formal organizational hierarchies has little to commend it.

Perhaps one of the strongest statements of the criteria for accountability in the public sector has been provided by Davies (1988) when suggesting that accountability is built on seven concepts: (i) clear stated objectives for service; (ii) identification of inputs; (iii) assessment of outputs; (iv) clarity of management responsibility; (v) a comparison of results achieved with those of other providers; (vi) seeking the opinions of clients on the performance provided; and (vii) the existence of a final sanction: the dismissal of individuals for poor performance. Within this framework there are numerous issues to be pursued in the application of the concept of accountability to higher education. A full discussion of these is beyond the scope of this paper, but their impact on higher education management and the innovation process is likely to be increasingly significant.

Associated with the increasing debate about accountability and the greater focus on leadership are the pressures in some systems for higher education institutions to have clearly defined objectives and goals or mission statements, despite some traditional objections that the definition of clear objectives is both impossible and undesirable in universities. The implications of this debate for the management of change are considerable, since, as pointed out below, a lack of agreement about objectives and an inability to implement them is a common cause of innovation failure in higher education. All too often in the face of institutional conflict the real and inevitably different views about institutional effectiveness between students, staff and society (Warren Piper 1984) are bypassed rather than confronted

and made explicit (Caston 1977). In operational terms, the following quotation taken from Handy and Aitken (1986) illustrates the problem powerfully:

"Without clear and agreed objectives there are no criteria for deciding how to allocate resources; everything becomes a political debate about priorities, without clear measures of success there are no obvious ways to assess the progress of individuals and departments; every judgement is subjective and personal. If a school is supposed to please everyone, then everyone has a right to influence every decision, management gets bogged down in talk."

Although this quotation relates to the secondary education sector, there is no doubt that it applies to higher education as well, and that the absence of clear objectives is a hindrance both to effective management and leadership, and to the successful introduction of change.

The debate about enhancing institutional effectiveness and the changing roles of senior staff in achieving this has led to a focus on the key skills at the heart of effective leadership. A full list would be lengthy, but crucial amongst them are interpersonal skills including the ability to communicate effectively. In this context, an interesting addition to management language in the last four years has been the acronym 'MBWA' ('Managing By Wandering About'), a phrase developed by Peters and Waterman (1982) to emphasise that some of the most important interpersonal skills of leadership concern encouraging motivation through open communication, frequent listening, and maintaining high visibility amongst the workforce. Numerous studies in management outside higher education demonstrate the vital importance of such interpersonal skills for effective leadership. For example, in a study of chief executives of business corporations the six most important things respondents identified in performing their role effectively all concerned interpersonal (as opposed to technical) skills (Margerison 1980). Currently considerable attention is being paid to attempts to determine the most important aspects of leadership as part of a competency-based approach, and interpersonal skills feature prominently in the various classifications used (Jacobs 1989).

5. Assessment of performance

For a variety of reasons, the assessment of both institutional and individual performance has become increasingly important in the last decade, though approaches to the conduct of such evaluation have varied widely in different higher education systems. In some there has been a trend towards centralization, for example in France, with the creation of a national committee to evaluate institutional performance (Staropoli 1986), whilst in others there has been a move towards decentralization, for example in Sweden, where greater responsibility is being transferred to individual universities (Bauer 1988).

For the institution, evaluation can serve numerous purposes, and those engaged both internally and externally in such activities need to be clear as to the exact reasons for pursuing evaluation. They include:

- providing data for institutional self-improvement;
- providing feedback information for users, clients or customers;
- guiding institutional decision-making;
- allocating resources;
- assisting future planning;
- monitoring the achievement of objectives;
- determining a basis for awarding incentives to departments (and perhaps to individuals within them);
- reducing resources;
- providing criteria in order to seek additional funds from external bodies;
- enhancing formal accountability to national or regional funding agencies;
- meeting legal or political needs; and
- (perhaps rather cynically) demonstrating activity to an external funding body who may insist on some form of evaluation.

It is unlikely that any institution can choose to do all these at the same time: hence a clear rationale in the selection of purposes is crucial. This may be a particular problem when assessing the effectiveness of innovations, in that it will be rare for them to be able to demonstrate success on all criteria, and therefore any evaluation strategy and the criteria to support it need to be defined at an early stage in the innovation process.

Perhaps the most controversial purpose of those listed above is the increasing use of evaluation to make allocation of scarce resources more selective, leading to the closure of courses, departments and, perhaps, whole institutions. In this context, Sizer (1982) has adapted the idea of the *Boston Planning Matrix* to relate evaluative criteria concerning institutional academic strengths and weaknesses, with those concerning market forces, with the implication that where academic weaknesses are combined with low demand, then programmes should be withdrawn.

Miller (1987) has suggested a number of guidelines for conducting institutional evaluation in higher education. They include the following points, which are also central to the evaluation of innovation:

- plans should be developed to ensure that the evaluation of institutional quality is compatible with the organizational culture;
- committed leadership is essential;
- an overall plan for improving quality should be developed and communicated;
- plans for evaluation should be linked to resource allocation;
- objective data should be used wherever possible;
- evaluators should avoid being over-committed to one particular approach;
- evaluation studies should be action oriented;
- a plan for evaluating the evaluation should be included.

Perhaps these concerns have been best summarized by Premfors (1986) who outlined *seven fundamental questions* concerning institutional evaluation in higher education. They are:

- (i) Motives (why evaluate?)
- (ii) Objectives (what is to be evaluated?)
- (iii) Organization (who should perform an evaluation?)
- (iv) Criteria (what criteria should be used?)
- (v) Methods (how will the evaluation occur?)
- (vi) Dissemination (who is the evaluation for?)
- (vii) Impact (what changes may be expected as a result?)

At an institutional level, discussion of the data on which evaluation of performance is centred has tended to focus on two issues: first, whether the data collected should be primarily quantitative or qualitative; and second, if quantitative, whether it should be input, process or output data. As the IIEP (1990) review has pointed out, obtaining reliable output data on some aspects of higher education is notoriously difficult (for example, *in the assessment of teaching*), but in others (for example, *research*) measures such as numbers of publications produced and cited are becoming widely established. For a useful discussion of issues in the design and use of performance indicators in different higher education systems see Cave *et al* (1988).

6. Managing people

Managing the people who work in institutions of higher education is becoming increasingly important in the face of the issues considered above. In most institutions staffing costs represent between 50 per cent and 70 per cent of total expenditure, and therefore the increasing quest for greater efficiency and effectiveness cannot avoid examining many aspects of staffing performance. Moreover, these concerns are not only related to matters of efficiency (for example, staff costs, staff/student ratios, marginal staffing costs in relation to departmental size, and so on), but also to the very nature and quality of academic work.

As universities and other higher education institutions move away from traditional collegial forms of behaviour, they are increasingly required to adopt different concepts of how their staff should be managed and the ways in which they should be accountable. There is a wide range of relevant issues here, and the following are a small selection of the most important, particularly in relation to the management of change.

Considerable changes are taking place in many higher education systems in the conditions of service applied to academic staff, including the nature of contracts, the methods and kinds of payment, and so on. In some systems, traditional approaches to staff tenure have been abolished, and more fixed-term contracts introduced, although such developments have not generally occurred in those systems where academics are employed on public service contracts. The debate about the removal of tenure has often been hostile, and the critics of tenure suggest that the widespread acceptance of the principle has reduced flexibility in staffing matters and has led to problems which include a lack of promotion opportunities for younger staff, and frequently an unwillingness to welcome innovation (Beck 1985). In this context the following quotation by Handy (1977), whilst slightly light-hearted, is a compelling illustration of the problems of introducing innovation into a culture where staffing flexibility is severely limited through tenure and academic freedom:

"In attempting to manage one bit of an organization of consent I was trying to discuss why my instructions had not been carried out by a colleague that I thought of as subordinate to me. 'You cannot tell me to do something' he explained gently, 'you can only ask me.' 'On the other hand,' he went on, rubbing salt into the wound, 'I don't ask you if I'm going to do something, I tell you.'"

Associated with changes in tenure, problems of poor comparative salaries for academics in certain subject areas (typically engineering, computing, business studies and accountancy) have in some systems meant the introduction of differential payments for staff in different subject areas, and therefore a tentative move away from formal national salaries, which have often linked pay with civil service levels. Even more recent is the development of the concept of performance related pay which is currently being introduced for senior staff in the non-university sector of British higher education in an attempt to provide tangible reward for effective institutional management. Such issues inevitably link with the management of change and innovation, and are referred to in Part II.

As well as changes in the nature of employment contracts, there is increasing emphasis in many institutions on staff maximization of performance, and this is seen to be achieved through a combination of faculty evaluation or appraisal, enhanced training and development, and a more interventionist style of staff management. Traditional assumptions of professional competence are increasingly being challenged as institutions move towards situations where students, commercial sponsors and other relevant bodies are regarded as clients or customers (Schofield 1990). This trend marks a significant opportunity for institutions to improve their effectiveness in innovating, as barriers caused by staff reluctance to change are removed.

Enhanced training and development opportunities are a particularly important feature in the attempt to increase the effectiveness of staff performance, and the lack of such activities has often been associated with the failure of major curriculum and other kinds of innovation in some higher education systems. Although a number of initiatives to improve teaching and learning have been tried in many higher education institutions in the last two decades (Brown, 1988 and Seldin, 1984), they have not generally been successful, having often been faced with an organizational culture that did not prize teaching very highly and provided few tangible incentives for improving personal competence in this area. In the face of the pressures outlined above this situation is now changing, and training and development may become a much more serious activity. In particular, the introduction of training programmes on academic leadership for institutional and departmental heads (for example, in Canada, Germany, Sweden and the USA) may in the long term significantly enhance effective management (Middlehurst 1989).

Clearly major changes in staff management raise directly the question of faculty motivation and how this is affected. It is difficult to generalise here, as although in many institutions morale is being adversely affected by the changes described above (particularly in those disciplines which may be contracting, because of financial pressures or loss of students), in other institutions where growth is occurring, and the opportunity for entrepreneurship and innovation is being encouraged, morale may be improving. This is, of

course, a particular consequence of the growing institutional diversity described above, and although it has many advantages for encouraging innovation and change, such issues should not be managed in an *ad hoc* and unco-ordinated way, particularly where academic staff are concerned.

The task for institutions is clear: questions of faculty motivation, performance, and ability must be addressed proactively if staff effectiveness is to be enhanced and innovations sustained.

Part II

The management of innovation and change in institutions of higher education

Against the background set out above of some key issues in the management of higher education for the 1990s, some specific questions in the management of innovation and change in higher education are discussed below under the five following headings:

- (1) Are institutions of higher education resistant to change?
- (2) The main sources of innovation and change in higher education.
- (3) Institutional readiness for change.
- (4) The implementation of change in higher education.
- (5) Strategies for innovation and change.

Throughout the discussion a number of issues are raised that may be useful in subsequent research by the IIEP.

1. Are institutions of higher education resistant to change?

A number of reasons for higher education institutions' apparent resistance to change are spelt out in Huberman (1973). To these reasons must be added some of the implications of the discussion above concerning effective management. In any institution with a lack of leadership, unclear objectives, slow decision-making processes and weak management information, major innovation and change is going to be difficult.

The starting point for any consideration of the management of change is that expecting higher education institutions -- particularly long established universities -- to be receptive to major change is itself somewhat naive. Their history, tradition and organization have often been designed to avoid institutional change rather than encourage it. As already noted, in many higher education systems academic staff hold formal tenure and strongly profess academic freedom, and this may enshrine their right to make their own changes in curriculum, teaching and research matters, whilst at the same time inevitably obstructing the application of organizational change which is not in their interests. Thus change has largely been based on consensual approaches to decision-making, with some of the disadvantages outlined briefly in the section on decision-making above (pages 2 - 4). Any attempt, therefore, to look at how innovation and change in higher education can be managed more

effectively must be set alongside questions about the nature, role and organization of universities and other forms of higher education.

Indeed, a report of the *Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee* (1989) has found it necessary to produce outline guidelines on what in their view constitutes a university in the face of a number of major changes proposed for the system as a whole.

The extent of institutional resistance to change is, of course, to some extent determined by social and political factors specific to individual societies. Thus although there are many issues common to the management of higher education everywhere, there are also many differences depending on the system concerned. Those societies which are more socially, politically and culturally entrepreneurial, and also those where a high number of private universities are found, are likely to be more responsive in managing change than those where there is total dependence on the State for funding, and in some cases for curriculum approval. This issue becomes particularly important where proposals for innovation and policy changes are made on an international basis, for example in the relationships between major aid banks and donor countries. The need for different social and cultural approaches to management is now widely recognized, and this also applies to studies of innovation and change (see, for example, Furnham and Bochner 1986 and Hofstede 1984).

The political context in which an institution works clearly has a strong effect in determining the extent of its own autonomy and the form of accountability for its own performance. This relationship may be clearly seen in pressures on some universities in Sub-Saharan Africa which may have to implement policies believed to be unrealistic because of their almost total dependence on the State for funds (Hinchliffe 1987). In this context it is interesting to note a recent decision of the British Government to remove institutions in the non-university sector of higher education (polytechnics and colleges) from local government control and give them institutional autonomy. This is a deliberate strategy to remove such institutions from what was perceived to be excessive political and bureaucratic control, and to try to create the opportunity for them to become much more innovative and entrepreneurial.

Associated (but not synonymous) with close external control and its effect on innovation is the extent to which institutions of higher education are primarily focussed on themselves and their own activities as opposed to looking outward to the communities they serve. In the example given above, some of the aspirations of many of the polytechnics and colleges freed from local government control include using the opportunities now available to become much more innovative in providing the kinds of services that they perceive their local communities to need. Peters and Austin (1985) have identified the internal or external focus of an institution as an important dimension in determining how changes caused by external factors are managed (for example, strategies used to overcome budgetary cutbacks, a declining market share, etc.). According to their thesis, organizations that are externally focussed, highly responsive to the needs of their clients and customers, and appreciative of the need for constant innovation are much more able to cope with changes caused by the external world than those organizations that are internally centred, slow in making decisions, complacent, and which (in their terms) have a 'members only' mentality.

Such a perspective immediately gives rise to a problem in the implementation of innovation and change: that it is precisely those organizations who are most aware of the need for innovation which are generally best at achieving it, and vice versa. In an inwardly focussed institution lacking objective measures of performance, innovation is often seen initially as unnecessary, and subsequently as threatening to its narrow internal perception. Professional bodies are frequently cited as primary examples of organizations that are inward looking and have a 'members only' mentality, and it is therefore scarcely surprising that the management of change represents a special problem for them.

A crucial issue relating to receptiveness to change and the ability to implement it, is that the form and strength of such pressures will vary greatly depending on the culture of any particular organization. Remarkably few studies on the cultures of educational organizations have been reported, but in management literature it is a concept that has gained increasing importance in the 1980s. Perhaps the most widely used model of organizational culture is that developed by Harrison (1972) and Handy (1978), but before expanding on its implications for the management of change it is necessary to describe it briefly. The authors argue that just as it is possible to say of societies that they have their own cultural attributes, similarly organizational culture can be defined in terms of the tradition, values, myths, language, symbols and so on found within particular organizations. They suggest that within all organizations four different and competing cultures can be found: one based on power and its use ('power culture'); a second based on the application rules and regulations and on the assignment of formal roles to spin a structured division of labour ('role culture'); a third based on achievement of identifiable and agreed tasks ('task culture'); and the fourth based on the individuals in the organization and their needs and expectations ('individual culture'). In most organizations, the authors argue, one culture tends to dominate, although all four will be present in some measure. A fuller explanation of the model is outside the scope of this paper, but its implications for the management of change are profound.

Although the applicability of organizational culture to higher education clearly varies according to the situation within each particular institution, in general it is possible to conceive of a power culture typically being found in the office of the university rector, president or vice-chancellor; a role culture typically being best represented by the permanent administration; a task culture typically being represented by effective team-based research groups and by some (though by no means all) academic departments; and the individual culture being represented by the numerous men and women who comprise the academic staff, and who maintain a strong commitment to their academic freedom and autonomy. The conflicts inherent in such a situation are immediately obvious, and the implications for change significant. It is almost impossible to implement major change affecting a whole institution where an individual culture is dominant, and examples are easy to find in many of Europe's traditional collegial universities. Where role cultures dominate, change will frequently get caught up in the application of complex rules and regulations, especially since such changes may not be in the interests of those whose job it is to set the rules or implement them. Moreover, in many higher education systems there is the added complication of two competing role cultures (often a government ministry and a university administration) trying somehow to sustain an innovation between them whilst it has to be implemented by academic staff who may not share common cultural values at all.

It is only in power and task cultures that change can be effectively and speedily introduced: in the former through powerful and perhaps authoritarian leadership, and in the latter through a joint commitment to the task. Of these two forms of organization it is perhaps within the task culture that the management of change within higher education can be most effectively brought about -- providing, of course, that agreement can be reached about the objectives on which the tasks are based, the type of change needed, and the ways of implementing it. Real differences between academic disciplines are found here, with expensive science departments increasingly undertaking team-based activities, whilst humanities departments tend to remain places of individual scholarly activity. Pure power cultures are relatively rare within higher education, as they represent a style of organization generally incompatible with large numbers of professional, autonomous staff, and thus forms of change typical of this culture (through order or instruction, or by changing people who do not meet the needs of those in authority) is comparatively uncommon. However, this is not to say that some elements of the power culture are undesirable: only that it is likely to be rare in its pure form.

Some of the implications of the model are clear: that successful change must be implemented in ways that match an organization's dominant culture, and that what may work in one setting may not be successful in another; that change by edict, order or regulation will not work in a task culture; and that any attempt to innovate through clarifying objectives and tasks and creating integrated work teams will be unsuccessful in an organization where everyone is autonomous and wants to continue to be so. In this context, the formal academic decision-making system of committees, academic boards and senates represents no more than a compromise which enables the competing cultures to co-exist, and allows each group to legitimise its own perception of the core values of the institution.

Kanter (1983), in her best selling book *The change masters*, uses a different model to look at organizational approaches to change, but she perceives some of the same implications for its implementation. She distinguishes between 'segmental' and 'integrative' organizations, typifying the former as those where innovation is difficult, where there is low motivation to solve problems, which are non-entrepreneurial, where there is a rigid division of labour, and where the organizational structure tends to be based on past practice rather on future needs. In integrative organizations, by contrast, change is welcomed and encouraged as part of an attempt to ensure that it is future needs which drive the main decision-making processes, rather than overdue attention being paid to the past. Although this model has not been specifically applied to higher education, it might be relevant to any IIEP studies of innovation which examine organizational commitment to change.

The reasons why institutions of higher education find it difficult to manage change are thus relatively easy to identify, although they are complex. Some come about because change itself is a difficult process for most organizations; others are specific to the nature of the higher education institution. But within this broad framework it is clear that the nature of the institution itself, and its traditions, culture, leadership and staff are highly influential in the way in which it approaches and manages change, and indeed views the future. All the issues addressed below must therefore be considered in the light of this, and any studies undertaken by IIEP should reflect their importance.

2. The main sources of innovation in higher education

Any assessment of the management of change in higher education has to consider the main sources of any likely innovation, and in most institutions there are four:

- (a) individual people and groups within an institution;
- (b) the formal decision-making system for the whole institution;
- (c) departments, schools or the main unit of organization;
- (d) innovation resulting from external pressure.

There are a number of distinct issues to be considered relating to these four sources of innovation, though some of them clearly overlap. Any future research by IIEP might usefully look at the issues raised by innovations from these different sources.

(a) People and groups. A study of the people and groups involved in the management of change in higher education might reveal some interesting personal characteristics concerning age, background, education and so on. Little work on this has been done in higher education, but in other areas of education Rogers (1965) has suggested that individual innovators tend to have the following characteristics:

- They tend to have relatively high social status in terms of education and social standing.
- Innovators are generally young in relation to the age of their peers.
- Their sources of information are largely outside the existing organizational system as well as inside.
- They are highly cosmopolitan compared with their peers.
- They are frequently viewed as deviant by their peers and by themselves.
- They may be socialized for part of their formal career outside the conventional status route of their peers.

They may also see themselves as 'product champions', a phrase adopted by Peters and Waterman (1982). Clearly, not all innovators have all these characteristics, but it would be useful to review whether and/or how people perceived as innovators in higher education conform to these patterns. The implications of the model of organizational culture introduced above are that those educational institutions dominated by the individual culture would be unlikely to contain a high proportion of innovators with these personal characteristics in positions of responsibility, since such cultures are typical of bodies such as professional associations who select their members with great care so as to reinforce their professional status and standing. In such circumstances, little or no innovation can be forced on academics unwilling to participate in major change; hence there may be little opportunity for anyone to bring about innovation outside his or her own immediate context. The concept of the 'product champion' is much more likely to be found in task centred cultures where there is a strong commitment to implementing agreed objectives.

(b) The decision-making system. Another major source of innovation within a typical institution of higher education is the formal decision-making system. Often this is based on the notion of participation by academic staff, and sometimes students, and despite

its advantages in terms of the spirit of collegiality it has been noted above that it has been subject to considerable criticism for being slow, cumbersome, costly, and unable to address crucial institutional issues in a proactive way. The ability of such decision-making forums to address key issues in institutional innovation, whatever their consequences, rather than simply responding reactively to proposals made by other individuals (whether inside or outside the organization), is a matter for potential research by IIEP, but the suggestion of a number of reports (for example, CVCP 1985) is that on many occasions such bodies tend to act as a 'dead hand' on innovation rather than encouraging it. In many universities a frequent approach to the management of innovation is to establish a specialist group or working party to consider the desirability of a particular proposal and the way that it might be implemented. Although compatible with a collegial decision-making structure, such approaches are not without their dangers, and even where a coherent proposal is made and adopted, it is frequently the case that those responsible for the proposal (that is, the members of the working party) are not accountable for its consequences or for its implementation. This gap, between the proposers of an innovation and those responsible for carrying it through, is a fundamental problem for the management of change in higher education, and a common cause of innovation failure.

(c) *The departmental level.* At the departmental level (or the 'base unit', to use the terminology of Becher and Kogan 1980), where a number of questions about the management of innovation are raised. For example:

- What is the role of heads of departments in encouraging innovation?
- How can departments be best organized to ensure effective teamwork?
- What incentives operate at the departmental level to encourage and support change?
- Are heads of departments selected on the basis of their ability to manage change successfully? and
- What kind of training is provided for them?

The answers to these questions will have a powerful effect on the way that change is perceived and introduced into departmental life (Keller 1983). However, there are many other issues which affect innovation, including the periods of office served by heads (are they long enough to enable them to manage change successfully, or are they changed so frequently that little can be achieved?) and whether heads are appointed or elected, and if the latter, who can stand for election. The relevant issues here are too numerous to list in full, but Becher and Kogan's work can be useful for looking at the interplay between different levels of an institution in relation to the management of change.

(d) *Pressure from external bodies.* These pressures are usually from those providing funding -- for example, government ministries and the like. Institutions manage such interventions or 'reforms' in various ways depending on their relationships with the State, and the overlap of individuals involved. For example, in a number of universities in Sub-Saharan Africa the head of State is chancellor of the university, and in such circumstances institutional autonomy is difficult to maintain. In other systems where institutions are notionally given greater operational freedom, the past decade has in fact seen much closer intervention in the management of higher education, largely through the control of funding mechanisms.

Institutional responses to such interventions raises various questions, many of which are linked to issues already considered. To continue the example of Sub-Saharan Africa: whilst a number of agencies such as the World Bank (1988) have been stressing the need for improved effectiveness in higher education in that region, the record in many States appears poor. Part of the reason for this may be that the dominant organizational cultures charged with transmitting such a policy (government ministries and university administration) are those least able to bring out effective change from the perspective of staff and students.

3. Institutional readiness for change

The success or failure of any change or innovation is clearly dependent not only on who the innovators are but on how able and ready the institution is to tackle the problems. Once again, some of the factors influencing institutional readiness for innovation are related to questions of organizational culture, as colleges can only ever be ready to accept innovations compatible with their own culture in terms of both process and content. Thus the concept of 'readiness' for change has to be seen in cultural terms, and is most comfortably at home in either power or task cultures, where organizational readiness may be determined either by the will of the senior staff, or by an organization's ability to examine its mission in relation to its future needs and roles, and manage the change process accordingly.

More practically, institutional readiness for innovation has been strongly determined by the financial growth and contraction in many systems in the last two decades. The experience in many developed countries of a contraction in higher education funding from State sources has led to an increasing realization that institutions must be prepared to respond proactively to protect themselves and their core activities and values. In the United Kingdom many of those institutions most severely affected by financial contraction in the early 1980s are now amongst those most ready to undertake major and controversial innovations because of this experience.

A potentially interesting concept in determining institutional readiness to manage change effectively is that put forward by Miles (1975): the concept of 'organizational health', where an organization meets the needs of its clients and members with optimal effectiveness and efficiency. Among Miles' identified criteria of 'health' are high staff morale, a strong commitment to innovation, adaptation to external pressure, clear goals, and decision-making dependent on competence rather than power. Although the full expression of the model has a distinct flavour of the late 1960s -- a more participative and democratic era -- the concept remains interesting, and there is a possible area of research work in developing the concept of organizational health and the role of management change into the 1990s.

A further determinant of readiness for change is likely to be the institution's expectations of the future in the light of previous innovations. There is here a predictive effect in terms of past successes or failures, and where a number of previous attempts at major change have been made and have failed, individuals are unlikely to be ready to proceed with further innovation. It is also unlikely that many institutions will have studied in detail the reasons for previous failures, and thus will not have changed their own internal

processes accordingly. Thus expectation of success is likely to add seriousness of purpose to the whole process of innovation.

The IIEP (1990) suggest that in general in Western Europe there is a trend towards central planning and control of higher education; this is important in relation to a further issue determining the readiness for change: *the balance between centralization and decentralization of decision-making and administrative procedures*. Indeed, in a number of institutions both centralization and decentralization are working at one and the same time: the State taking a greater interest in the allocation of funds, whilst more autonomy is granted to individual institutions (and indeed to departments and base units within institutions) on how resources are spent. In some cases, with departments happy to take on board their new found autonomy for spending (and in terms of the model of organizational cultures becoming more task centred), institutions are finding themselves squeezed between the requirements of the funding bodies and initiatives shown by departments. Clearly, how an institution responds to such pressures, and whether it chooses to centralise or decentralise its own procedures, will be a strong determinant of its readiness to perceive particular kinds of innovation. Thus within a system moving to greater centralization, proposals for decentralization are unlikely to be successful, and vice versa.

4. The implementation of change in higher education

There are numerous factors identified in the literature on innovation which influence the implementation of change and the rate at which its spread and success may be diffused within an organization.

It has already been noted that strong commitment to any particular proposal or innovation is crucial. There are three distinct issues here:

- (i) the nature of institutional commitment;
- (ii) the commitment of individuals within the institution;
- (iii) the commitment of the academic discipline concerned.

As a number of authors have observed, the primary loyalty of many academic staff has traditionally been not to their own institution, but rather to their academic discipline, and in such circumstances it is the discipline -- often represented by a professional association -- that becomes heavily involved in either supporting or opposing major institutional changes. For example, it is unlikely that any significant innovation can be made to the curricula in professional subject areas without the support of both individual members of staff (who teach it), those involved with the discipline as a whole (professional associations, chartered societies and so on who monitor it) and the institution itself (who fund it and manage it etc.). When commitment on the part of any one of these three groups is lacking, then it will be difficult to implement any major curriculum change. Separate from this is the power of students to oppose and propose change which in some systems is, of course, considerable, either collectively through pressure groups or privately in their role as customer.

Related to this point, but separate from it, is the question of 'ownership' of any proposed innovation or change. As observed above, there are few staff in higher education

institutions who have the power to implement innovation on the basis of their own authority, and joint decision-making systems are often used both to promote and to diffuse innovation. A major problem in such an approach is that no one individual 'owns' any proposed change, or is its 'product champion'. Indeed, Cohen and March (1974) have even suggested that the initial instigators of an innovation should hand over ownership to higher status professional colleagues in an attempt to gain broader institutional support. There is an extensive literature to show that without such committed support implementation will fail.

A further problem specific to the implementation of change in higher education is the question of speed. In other less complex organizations successful innovation is often directly related to speed, and considerable effort may be made to ensure both that the dynamic of any proposed innovation is maintained, and also that an agreed timescale is generally known: 'do it quickly' is a frequent prescription of management textbooks. However, higher education institutions tend to have long lead times for many of their activities, and thus innovating quickly can be difficult. There are numerous examples of courses which have outlived their usefulness, or failed to recruit enough students, but which are still offered years after they should have been stopped. An interesting exception to this rule appears to concern changes which come about for financial reasons, and it is notable that in those systems where government funding has been reduced in the 1980s the institutions so affected have been forced to move much more quickly, and to use different decision processes, than has traditionally been the case. The message seems to be straightforward: if a major innovation is to be successfully introduced it needs an effective timetable, agreed in advance, which allows momentum to be maintained.

As noted in the introductory paragraphs, the question of leadership to implement innovation is held to be, perhaps, the most crucial aspect by many (Hersey and Blanchard (1977)). The form of leadership, as pointed out above, will vary according to the particular culture of the organization, and the style of the individual concerned, but without strong support and commitment from senior staff major innovations are unlikely to succeed. An important area of possible research for IIEP is thus to examine the form and extent of leadership in relation to the implementation of innovation in developing countries.

The provision of effective information about any major innovation is also held to be a crucial determinant of whether it can be successfully implemented. The absence of comprehensive management data bases has already been observed, but effective information and communication can take a variety of forms (newsletters, bulletin boards etc.), but it is essential that it is itself managed. Thus, although information is frequently widely available within higher education institutions to those who take the trouble to seek it out, many institutions are poor at managing the information flow so as to ensure that any innovation has the greatest chance of success.

Although the provision of such information is valuable, there is some evidence to suggest that this, and associated strategies for effective implementation of change will be of little value unless incentives are available, both for the individual and for the institution, to help the implementation process. Unless an institution benefits in some tangible way from a major innovation it is unlikely to co-operate fully in its implementation, and similarly incentives must be available to individual members of staff. Of course, these need not

necessarily be financial; there is a whole range of incentives, perhaps the most important being those professional ones associated with improving quality, greater job satisfaction and so on. However, in a situation where tenure is guaranteed and academic freedom maintained, neither positive nor negative incentives may be available in order to address the constant complaint from senior staff that they have no sanctions over unco-operative staff.

Finally, in addition to these factors, it should be noted that any successful strategy for implementing change has to acknowledge that many people will always find the disturbance it causes undesirable, and may indeed perceive commitment to change to entail significant personal risk. The literature records numerous forms such risk might take: fears, for example, that status might be devalued; that academic reputation might be lost; that prized working habits might be changed; that individual freedom might be reduced; and so on. Such concerns typically exist most strongly in the cultures where self-image rests on professional reputation and status. Thus one of the challenges for those who would argue for a more entrepreneurial approach to higher education is that of altering the perception of many staff, so that instead of viewing change as undesirable and risky they see it as natural and welcome.

5. Strategies for innovation and change

A number of different theoretical models for evaluating strategies for change can be found in the literature on higher education, and in outline they include the following:

(a) Organizational development strategies

In the 1970s considerable effort was expended in using behavioural science approaches to encourage organizational change in education (see for example Schmuck and Runkel 1972). Such approaches centred largely on changing people, and emphasized such issues as attitude change through increasing participation, involvement, the value of group work and so on. Many of these concepts are still to be found in the literature on managing change, but in the harsher economic climate of the 1980s and 1990s they have tended to be reformed to take much more account of the need for strong, informed leadership. Organizational development initiatives frequently require the use of external consultants or 'change agents', and have a powerful contribution to make in enabling difficult internal problems which inhibit change to be addressed in a positive way.

(b) Force field analysis

This is a model which can be used for analysing the process of any particular innovation (for example, see Berg and Ostergren 1977) for an application of the model to major changes in higher education in Sweden). In summary, the approach applies an analysis of factors for and against any particular innovation, and distinguishes those factors into three kinds: personal forces, relationship forces and system forces. It is argued that the resulting information provides a useful tool for the strategic implementation of change in the light of significant opposition.

(c) Power/coercive strategies

A number of approaches to the management of change have stressed the importance of power, in particular Chin and Benne (1983), Havelock (1971) and Huberman (1973). Power/coercive strategies of change are based on explicit or implicit power relations, and may be political, or based on personal authority, or stem from rule compliance through bureaucratic procedures. The use of such approaches in higher education has been documented on a number of occasions (see, for example Baldrige, *et al* 1971) with the adoption of a political and conflict model for analysing change and decision-making in institutions. Clearly, there is also a link with the idea of organizational cultures, and a strategy towards change that is entirely dependent on a power/coercive approach is unlikely to succeed except in a pure power culture.

(d) Empirical/rational strategies

Such approaches are also articulated by Chin and Benne, and have been widely reviewed in the educational literature. They are based on the assumption that organizations and the people within them are rational, and tend to pursue self-interest once it is perceived. Here the main thrust of innovation is through rational argument, planning, and formal research and development. In education this approach to change has probably been dominant, particularly in the 1970s. The adoption of large-scale data based approaches to management information systems, the use of central planning in many higher education systems (for example the National Board in Sweden) and so on, all represent essentially empirical/rational approaches to change. In terms of organizational theory these issues are picked up by approaches to organizational analysis which emphasise formalized and structured approaches to decision-making. Such approaches to change, although widespread, have come under increasing criticism from management writers such as Peters and Waterman (1982) who see them as being inflexible, slow and having a poor record of success.

(e) Normative/re-educative strategies

This is the third of three approaches developed by Chin and Benne, and is essentially designed to achieve change through altering the values and attitudes of staff in organizations; this may be done on either a top down or a bottom up basis. Such strategies feature an extensive dissemination of information and widespread training to ease the implementation of innovations. To be effective, such an approach almost certainly has to be combined with empirical/rational strategies. Variations of the classifications of empirical/rational, power/culture, and normative/re-educative can be found in Havelock (1971) and Huberman (1973).

(f) The new entrepreneurial models

The 1980s have seen the adoption of a number of models which share an approach to the management of change based on the development of successful entrepreneurial organizations (see for example Peters and Waterman 1982, Peters and Austin 1985, Peters 1988, and Kanter 1983). Such models, although given to simplifying behaviour in complex

organizations, present a major challenge to the way in which innovations have been conducted in much of higher education and the public sector in the past. For example, Peters and Austin suggest a number of major myths concerning the management of innovation that are at the heart of the empirical/rational strategies mentioned above. They suggest that rather than successful innovations coming about through substantial strategic planning (a process which is at the core of an empirical/rational strategy), most effective innovation is based on uncertainty and ambiguity; rather than creating adequate time for detailed project studies, for reflection and for developing complete technical specifications, their approach is to move as rapidly as possible and test innovations on real people with a 'try it now' philosophy. They also place at the centre of organizational innovation the user, client or customer (a term which is going to be heard much more in higher education, and which is itself controversial). For the authors of these new and entrepreneurially focussed models, customers and clients are one of the best sources of innovation: they accuse traditional approaches of failing because they placed primary emphasis on organizational needs and put the customer or client last. The following list of points, taken from Peters and Austin, provides a guide to some of the interesting issues involved in the concept of managing change from this perspective:

- A strong bias towards action is required; inaction is not tolerated by successful organizations.
- Effective innovators are willing to try and test rather than attempt to ensure 'certainty'.
- In innovative organizations failure is not only tolerated but accepted as the inevitable price of innovation.
- Past failures amongst successful senior staff are openly acknowledged.
- Effective teamwork is encouraged and rewarded.
- Using customers and clients to assist with ideas for innovation is normal.
- Staff are encouraged to challenge organizational rules in the interests of innovation and providing a quality service for the customer.
- 'Product champions' who are acknowledged and valued are crucial.

Such a list of issues (and it could easily be extended) could almost come from Handy's and Harrison's description of task cultures, and it provides a powerful checklist to set alongside an analysis of the management of change in any higher education institution.

Although such approaches may also be more appropriate to some societies than to others, the challenge they present is that they cut through much of the complexity of organizational theory in the last two decades and provide a simple (perhaps over simple) view of the organizational world. This can best be summarized by the following quotation from Peters and Austin:

"In the private or public sector, in big business or in small, we observe that there are only two ways to create and sustain superior performance over the long haul. First, take exceptional care of your customers via superior service and superior quality. Second, constantly innovate. That's it. There are no alternatives in achieving long term superior performance."

The IIEP (1990) suggests that "perhaps the most alarming characteristic of the body of empirical study on innovation analysis is the extreme variance amongst its findings". The new entrepreneurial models challenge this view, and suggest that there is no mystery to innovation -- and indeed that we complicate our study of it unnecessarily. Such models rather suggest that by concentrating on a few key issues -- leadership, quality, and meeting the needs of users and customers -- organizational effectiveness can be greatly enhanced. It would be valuable to test the hypothesis in selected developing centres.

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Issues and methodologies in educational development, N° 1

The paper reviews some of the many issues in the management of higher education institutions, and considers how some of the lessons learnt about managing innovation and change in organisations can be applied to higher education.

The author

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